

# Some Notes on Propositional and First Order Logic

Eric Pacuit  
Department of Philosophy  
University of Maryland  
[pacuit.org](http://pacuit.org)  
[epacuit@umd.edu](mailto:epacuit@umd.edu)

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## 1 Propositional Logic

Suppose that  $\text{At}$  is a (finite or countable) set of **atomic propositions**. Propositional formulas are defined inductively:

- If  $p \in \text{At}$ , then  $p$  is a propositional formula.
- If  $\varphi$  is a propositional formula, then so is  $\neg\varphi$ .
- If  $\varphi, \psi$  are propositional formulas, then so are  $\varphi \wedge \psi$ ,  $\varphi \vee \psi$ , and  $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$ .
- Nothing else is a propositional formula.

Rather than writing out the full inductive definition, it is common to define a formal language by specifying the (context-free) grammar that generates the language:

**Definition 1 (Propositional Formulas)** Suppose that  $\text{At}$  is a set of atomic propositions. Let  $\mathcal{L}(\text{At})$  be the smallest set of formulas defined by the following grammar:

$$p \mid \neg\varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \psi \mid \varphi \vee \psi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \psi$$

where  $p \in \text{At}$ . We write  $\mathcal{L}$  instead of  $\mathcal{L}(\text{At})$  when the set of atomic propositions is understood. ◀

**Definition 2 (Propositional Valuation)** A propositional valuation is a function  $V : \text{At} \rightarrow \{1, 0\}$ . This function is extended to all propositional formulas, denoted  $\bar{V} : \mathcal{L}(\text{At}) \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , as follows:

- $\bar{V}(p) = V(p)$  for all  $p \in \text{At}$

- $\bar{V}(\neg\varphi) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \bar{V}(\varphi) = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } \bar{V}(\varphi) = 1 \end{cases}$
- $\bar{V}(\varphi \wedge \psi) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \bar{V}(\varphi) = 1 \text{ and } \bar{V}(\psi) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $\bar{V}(\varphi \vee \psi) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \bar{V}(\varphi) = 1 \text{ or } \bar{V}(\psi) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- $\bar{V}(\varphi \rightarrow \psi) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \bar{V}(\varphi) = 1 \text{ and } \bar{V}(\psi) = 0 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

To simplify the notation, we often write  $V$  for both the propositional valuation and its extension to the full set of propositional formulas.  $\triangleleft$

Sometimes it is convenient to include two special atomic propositions ' $\perp$ ' and ' $\top$ ', meaning 'false' and 'true', respectively. We can either think of these atomic proposition as being defined ( $\perp$  is  $p \wedge \neg p$  and  $\top$  is  $p \vee \neg p$  for some  $p \in \mathbf{At}$ ) or as special atomic propositions where for all propositional valuations,  $V(\perp) = 0$  and  $V(\top) = 1$ .

We say that a set  $\Gamma$  of propositional formulas is **satisfiable** if all the formulas in  $\Gamma$  can be true at the same time, i.e., there is a propositional valuation  $V$  such that for all  $\varphi \in \Gamma$ ,  $V(\varphi) = 1$ . A formula  $\varphi \in \Gamma$  is **valid** if for all propositional valuations  $V$ ,  $V(\varphi) = 1$ .

**Definition 3 (Logical Consequence)** Suppose that  $\Gamma$  is a set propositional formulas. We say that  $\varphi$  is a logical consequence of  $\Gamma$ , denoted  $\Gamma \models \varphi$ , provided that for all propositional valuations  $V$ , if for all  $\psi \in \Gamma$ ,  $V(\psi) = 1$ , then  $V(\varphi) = 1$ .  $\triangleleft$

There are many different types of axiomatizations for propositional logic (e.g., Hilbert-style deductions, natural deduction systems, Gentzen systems, Tableaux). Consider the following *axiom schemes* and rule:

1.  $\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \rightarrow \alpha)$
2.  $(\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \rightarrow \gamma)) \rightarrow ((\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \gamma))$
3.  $\perp \rightarrow \alpha$
4.  $(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \alpha$
5.  $(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \beta$
6.  $\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \rightarrow (\alpha \wedge \beta))$
7.  $\alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \vee \beta)$
8.  $\beta \rightarrow (\alpha \vee \beta)$
9.  $(\alpha \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow ((\beta \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow ((\alpha \vee \beta) \rightarrow \perp))$
10.  $((\alpha \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow \alpha$
11. (Modus Ponens)  $\frac{\alpha \quad \alpha \rightarrow \beta}{\beta}$

Note that  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\gamma$  should be thought of as meta-variables that will be replaced with any formula of propositional logic.

**Definition 4 (Deduction)** Suppose that  $\Gamma$  is a set of propositional formulas. A deduction of  $\varphi$  from  $\Gamma$  is a finite sequence of formulas  $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n$  where  $\varphi_n = \varphi$ , for each  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $\varphi_i$  is either an element of  $\Gamma$ , an instance of one of the above axiom schemes or follows from earlier formulas by Modus Ponens (i.e., there are  $\varphi_j, \varphi_k$  such that  $j, k < i$ ,  $\varphi_j = \alpha$ ,  $\varphi_k = \alpha \rightarrow \beta$  and  $\varphi_i = \beta$ ). We write  $\Gamma \vdash \varphi$  when there is a deduction of  $\varphi$  from  $\Gamma$ . ◀

We say that a set of formulas  $\Gamma$  is **consistent** if  $\Gamma \not\vdash \perp$ . The two key theorems relating deductions and logical consequence are Soundness and Completeness:

**Theorem 5 (Soundness)**  $\Gamma \vdash \varphi$  implies that  $\Gamma \models \varphi$ .

**Theorem 6 (Completeness)**  $\Gamma \models \varphi$  implies that  $\Gamma \vdash \varphi$ .

## 1.1 Possible Worlds

Suppose that  $W$  is a non-empty set, elements of which are called **possible worlds**, or **states**. Each possible world is associated with a propositional valuation. This is typically expressed by a **valuation function**:  $V : W \times \text{At} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ . A valuation function is extended to a function  $\bar{V} : W \times \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  as in Definition 2. As above, we often write  $V : W \times \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  for both the valuation function and its extension to  $\mathcal{L}$ .

Each valuation function  $V : W \times \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is associated with a function  $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \wp(W)$ , where  $\wp(W)$  is the set of all subsets of  $W$ , as follows:

$$\text{For each } \varphi \in \mathcal{L}, \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket = \{w \mid V(w, \varphi) = 1\}$$

It is a straightforward (but instructive!) exercise to verify the following Fact:

**Fact 7** For all  $\varphi \in \mathcal{L}$ ,

- $\llbracket \neg\varphi \rrbracket = W - \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket$
- $\llbracket \varphi \wedge \psi \rrbracket = \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket \cap \llbracket \psi \rrbracket$
- $\llbracket \varphi \vee \psi \rrbracket = \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket \cup \llbracket \psi \rrbracket$
- $\llbracket \varphi \rightarrow \psi \rrbracket = (W - \llbracket \varphi \rrbracket) \cup \llbracket \psi \rrbracket$

## 2 First-Order Logic

The language of predicate logic is constructed from a number of different pieces of syntax: variables, constants, function symbols and predicate symbols. Both function and predicate symbols are associated with an *arity*: the number of arguments that are required by the function or predicate. We start by defining **terms**. Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a finite (or countable) set of **variables** and  $C$  a set of **constants**.

**Definition 8 (Terms)** Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a set of variable,  $C$  a set of constant symbols and  $\mathcal{F}$  a set of function symbols. Each function symbol is associated with an **arity** (a positive integer specifying the number of arguments). Write  $f^{(n)}$  when the arity of  $f$  is  $n$ . A term  $\tau$  is constructed as follows:

- Any variable  $x \in \mathcal{V}$  is a term.
- Any constant  $c \in C$  is a term.
- If  $f^{(n)} \in \mathcal{F}$  is a function symbol (i.e.,  $f$  accepts  $n$  arguments) and  $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n$  are terms, then  $f(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$  is a term.
- Nothing else is a term.

Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be the set of terms. ◀

Terms are used to construct atomic formulas:

**Definition 9 (Atomic Formulas)** Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a set of predicate symbols. Each predicate symbol is associated with an arity (the number of objects that are related by  $P$ ). We write  $P^{(n)}$  if the arity of  $P$  is  $n$ . Suppose that  $P$  is an atomic predicate symbol with arity  $n$ . If  $\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n$  are terms, then  $P(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$  is an atomic formula. To simplify the notation, we may write  $P\tau_1\tau_2 \cdots \tau_n$ . A special predicate symbol '=' is included with the intended interpretation *equality*. ◀

**Definition 10 (Formulas)** Formulas are constructed as follows:

- Atomic formulas  $P(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$  are formulas;
- If  $\varphi$  is a formula, then so is  $\neg\varphi$ ;
- If  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are formulas, then so is  $\varphi \wedge \psi$ ;
- If  $\varphi$  is a formula, then so is  $(\forall x)\varphi$ , where  $x$  is a variable;
- Nothing else is a formula.

The other boolean connectives ( $\vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$ ) are defined as usual. In addition,  $(\exists x)\varphi$  is defined as  $\neg(\forall x)\neg\varphi$ . ◀

**Definition 11 (Free Variable)** Suppose that  $x$  is a variable. Then,  $x$  **occurs free in**  $\varphi$  is defined as follows:

1. If  $\varphi$  is an atomic formula, then  $x$  occurs free in  $\varphi$  provided  $x$  occurs in  $\varphi$  (i.e., is a symbol in  $\varphi$ ).
2.  $x$  occurs free in  $\neg\psi$  iff  $x$  occurs free in  $\psi$
3.  $x$  occurs free in  $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$  iff  $x$  occurs free in  $\psi_1$  or  $x$  occurs free in  $\psi_2$
4.  $x$  occurs free in  $(\forall y)\psi$  iff  $x$  occurs free in  $\psi$  and  $x \neq y$
5.  $x$  occurs free in  $(\exists y)\psi$  iff  $x$  occurs free in  $\psi$  and  $x \neq y$  ◀

The set of free variables in  $\varphi$ , denoted  $\text{Fr}(\varphi)$ , is defined by recursion as follows:

1. If  $\varphi$  is an atomic formula, then  $\text{Fr}(\varphi)$  is the set of all variables (if any) that occur in  $\varphi$
2. If  $\varphi$  is  $\neg\psi$ , then  $\text{Fr}(\neg\varphi) = \text{Fr}(\varphi)$
3. If  $\varphi$  is  $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$ , then  $\text{Fr}(\varphi) = \text{Fr}(\psi_1) \cup \text{Fr}(\psi_2)$
4. If  $\varphi$  is  $(\forall x)\psi$ , then  $\text{Fr}(\psi) = \text{Fr}(\psi)$  after removing  $x$ , if present.

A variable  $x$  that is not free is said to be **bound**. Formulas that do not contain any free variables are called sentences:

**Definition 12 (Sentence)** If  $\varphi$  is a formula and  $\text{Fr}(\varphi) = \emptyset$  (i.e., there are no free variables), then  $\varphi$  is a **sentence**. ◀

## 2.1 Substitutions

If  $\tau$  and  $\tau'$  are terms, we write  $\tau[x/\tau']$  for the terms where  $x$  is replaced by  $\tau'$ . We can formally define this operation by recursion:

- $x[x/\tau'] = \tau'$
- $y[x/\tau'] = y$  for  $x \neq y$
- $c[x/\tau'] = c$
- $F(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)[x/\tau'] = F(\tau_1[x/\tau'], \dots, \tau_n[x/\tau'])$

The same notation can be used for formulas  $\varphi[x/\tau]$  which means replace all free occurrences of  $x$  with  $\tau$  in a formula  $\varphi$ . This is defined as follows:

- $P(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)[x/\tau] = P(\tau_1[x/\tau], \dots, \tau_n[x/\tau])$
- $\neg\psi[x/\tau] = \neg(\psi[x/\tau])$
- $(\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2)[x/\tau] = \psi_1[x/\tau] \wedge \psi_2[x/\tau]$
- $((\forall x)\varphi)[x/\tau] = (\forall x)\varphi$
- $((\forall y)\varphi)[x/\tau] = (\forall y)\varphi[x/\tau]$ , where  $y \neq x$

The following are key examples of this operation:

1.  $(x = y)[y/x]$  is  $x = x$  and  $(x = y)[x/y]$  is  $y = y$ ,
2.  $(\forall x(x = y))[x/y]$  is  $(\forall x)x = y$ ,
3.  $(\forall x(x = y))[y/x]$  is  $(\forall x)x = x$ ,
4.  $(\forall x)\neg(\forall y)(x = y) \rightarrow (\neg\forall y(x = y))[x/y]$  is  $(\forall x)\neg(\forall y)(x = y) \rightarrow \neg\forall y(y = y)$ .

**Definition 13 (Substitutability)** A term  $\tau$  is **substitutable for  $x$  in  $\varphi$**  is defined as follows:

- For an atomic formula  $\varphi$ ,  $\tau$  is always substitutable for  $x$  in  $\varphi$  (there are no quantifiers, so  $t$  can always be substituted for  $x$ )
- $\tau$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $\neg\psi$  iff  $\tau$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $\psi$
- $\tau$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$  iff  $\tau$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $\psi_1$  and  $\tau$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $\psi_2$
- $\tau$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $(\forall y)\psi$  iff either
  1.  $x$  does not occur free in  $(\forall y)\psi$
  2.  $y$  does not occur in  $\tau$  and  $\tau$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $\psi$ .

◀

## 2.2 First-Order Models

### 2.2.1 Interpreting Terms

Suppose that  $W$  is a set. An **interpretation**  $I$  (for  $W$ ) associates with each functions symbol  $F$  a function on  $W$  of the appropriate arity, denoted  $F^I$ , and to each constant  $c$  an element of  $W$ , denoted  $c^I$ . If  $W$  is a set and  $I$  an interpretation, then for a function symbol  $F$  of arity  $n$ ,

$$F^I : \underbrace{W \times \cdots \times W}_{n \text{ times}} \rightarrow W$$

For each constant symbol,  $c$ , we have

$$c^I \in W$$

Our goal is to show how to associate with each term and element of a set  $W$ . We first need the notion of a substitution:

**Definition 14 (Substitution)** Suppose that  $W$  is a nonempty set. A **substitution** is a function  $\mathbf{s} : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow W$ . ◀

**Definition 15 (Interpretation of Terms)** Suppose that  $I$  is an interpretation for  $W$  and  $\mathbf{s} : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow W$  is a substitution. We define the function  $(I, \mathbf{s}) : \mathcal{T} \rightarrow W$  by recursion as follows:

- $(I, \mathbf{s})(x) = \mathbf{s}(x)$
- $(I, \mathbf{s})(c) = c^I$
- $(I, \mathbf{s})(F(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)) = F^I((I, \mathbf{s})(\tau_1), \dots, (I, \mathbf{s})(\tau_n))$  ◀

Suppose that  $\mathbf{s} : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow W$  is a substitution. If  $a \in W$ , we define a new substitution  $\mathbf{s}[x/a]$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{s}[x/a](y) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } y = x \\ \mathbf{s}(y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Suppose that  $\mathbf{s} : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow W$  and  $\mathbf{s}' : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow W$  are two substitutions. For each variable  $x \in \mathcal{V}$ , we define a relation on the set of substitutions as follows:

$$\mathbf{s} \sim_x \mathbf{s}' \text{ iff } \mathbf{s}(y) = \mathbf{s}'(y) \text{ for all } y \neq x$$

Hence,  $\mathbf{s} \sim_x \mathbf{s}'$  provided there is some  $a \in W$  such that  $\mathbf{s}' = \mathbf{s}[x/a]$ .

### 2.2.2 First Order Models

**Definition 16 (Model)** A model is a pair  $\mathfrak{M} = \langle W, I \rangle$  where  $W$  is a nonempty set (called the domain) and  $I$  is a function (called the interpretation) assigning to each function symbol  $F$ , a function denoted  $F^I$ , to each constant symbol, an element of  $W$  denoted  $c^I$  and to each predicate symbol  $P$ , a relation on  $W$  of the appropriate arity. If  $P$  has arity  $n$ , then we have

$$P^I \subseteq \underbrace{W \times \cdots \times W}_{n \text{ times}}$$

If  $\mathcal{A}$  is a model, we write  $|\mathcal{A}|$  for the domain of  $\mathcal{A}$ , and we write  $F^{\mathcal{A}}$ ,  $c^{\mathcal{A}}$  and  $P^{\mathcal{A}}$  to denote  $F^I$ ,  $c^I$  and  $P^I$ , respectively.  $\triangleleft$

We say  $\mathbf{s}$  is a substitution for  $\mathcal{A}$  provided  $\mathbf{s} : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow |\mathcal{A}|$ . Let  $\mathcal{A} = \langle W, I \rangle$  be a model. For each term  $\tau$ , we write  $\tau^{\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s}}$  for  $(I, \mathbf{s})(\tau)$ .

**Definition 17 (Truth)** Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a model and  $\mathbf{s}$  is a substitution for  $\mathcal{A}$ . The formula  $\varphi$  is true in  $\mathcal{A}$  (given  $\mathbf{s}$ ), denoted  $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \models \varphi$ , is defined by recursion as follows:

- $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \models P(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$  iff  $(\tau_1^{\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s}}, \dots, \tau_n^{\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s}}) \in P^{\mathcal{A}}$
- $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \models \neg\psi$  iff  $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \not\models \psi$
- $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \models \psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$  iff  $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \models \psi_1$  and  $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \models \psi_2$
- $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s} \models (\forall x)\psi$  iff for all substitutions  $\mathbf{s}'$  for  $\mathcal{A}$  if  $\mathbf{s} \sim_x \mathbf{s}'$ , then  $\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{s}' \models \psi$   $\triangleleft$

### 2.3 Deductions in First Order Logic

An axiom system for first-order logic consists of the following four axioms (there are others, this is the one from Enderton's *Introduction to Mathematical Logic*):

1. All tautologies
2.  $(\forall x)\varphi \rightarrow \varphi[x/t]$ , where  $t$  is substitutable for  $x$  in  $\varphi$
3.  $(\forall x)(\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \rightarrow ((\forall x)\varphi \rightarrow (\forall x)\psi)$
4.  $\varphi \rightarrow (\forall x)\varphi$ , where  $x$  does not occur free in  $\varphi$

**Definition 18 (Generalization)** Given a formula  $\varphi$ , a **generalization** of  $\varphi$  is a formula of the form  $(\forall x_1) \cdots (\forall x_n)\varphi$ .  $\triangleleft$

**Definition 19 (Tautology)** A tautology (in FOL) is any formula obtained by replacing each atomic proposition with a first-order formula.  $\triangleleft$

**Definition 20 (Deduction)** We write  $\Gamma \vdash \varphi$  iff there is a finite sequence of formulas  $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_n$  such that  $\varphi_n = \varphi$ , each  $\varphi_i$  is either a generalization of one of the above axioms, is an element of  $\Gamma$ , or follows from earlier formulas on the list by modus ponens. We write  $\vdash \varphi$  instead of  $\emptyset \vdash \varphi$ . ◀

**Example .**  $\vdash \exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \exists x\alpha \wedge \exists x\beta$ .

1.	$\forall x(\neg\alpha \rightarrow \neg(\alpha \wedge \beta))$	Instance of Axiom 1
2.	$\forall x(\neg\alpha \rightarrow \neg(\alpha \wedge \beta)) \rightarrow (\forall x\neg\alpha \rightarrow \forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta))$	Instance of Axiom 3
3.	$\forall x\neg\alpha \rightarrow \forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta)$	MP 1,2
4.	$(\forall x\neg\alpha \rightarrow \forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta)) \rightarrow (\neg\forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \neg\forall x\neg\alpha)$	Instance of Axiom 1
5.	$\neg\forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \neg\forall x\neg\alpha$	MP 3,4
6.	$\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \exists x\alpha$	Definition of '∃'
7.	$\forall x(\neg\beta \rightarrow \neg(\alpha \wedge \beta))$	Instance of Axiom 1
8.	$\forall x(\neg\beta \rightarrow \neg(\alpha \wedge \beta)) \rightarrow (\forall x\neg\beta \rightarrow \forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta))$	Instance of Axiom 3
9.	$\forall x\neg\beta \rightarrow \forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta)$	MP 7,8
10.	$(\forall x\neg\beta \rightarrow \forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta)) \rightarrow (\neg\forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \neg\forall x\neg\beta)$	Instance of Axiom 1
11.	$\neg\forall x\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \neg\forall x\neg\beta$	MP 9,10
12.	$\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \exists x\beta$	Definition of '∃'
13.	$(\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \exists x\alpha) \rightarrow ((\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \exists x\beta) \rightarrow (\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow (\exists x\alpha \wedge \exists x\beta)))$	Instance of Axiom 1
14.	$(\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \exists x\beta) \rightarrow (\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow (\exists x\alpha \wedge \exists x\beta))$	MP 6,13
15.	$\exists x(\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow (\exists x\alpha \wedge \exists x\beta)$	MP 12, 14

## 2.4 Basic Model Theory

- A set of formulas  $T$  is **inconsistent** provided  $T \vdash \perp$  (where  $\perp$  is a formula of the form  $0 \neq \mathbf{S}(0)$ ). A set of formulas  $T$  is **consistent** if it is not inconsistent.
- Suppose that  $T$  is a set of sentences. Then  $Cn(T) = \{\varphi \mid T \vdash \varphi\}$  is the set of (first-order) **consequences** of  $T$ .
- Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a first-order model. Then,  $Th(\mathcal{A}) = \{\varphi \mid \varphi \text{ is a sentence and } \mathcal{A} \models \varphi\}$  is the **theory of  $\mathcal{A}$** . For example,  $Th(\mathcal{N}_S)$  is the set of sentences of  $\mathcal{L}_S$  true in  $\mathcal{N}_S$ ; and  $Th(\mathcal{N})$  is the set of sentences of  $\mathcal{L}_A$  true in  $\mathcal{N}$  (the **theory of true arithmetic**).
- A set of sentences  $T$  is **satisfiable** if there is a model  $\mathcal{A}$  such that  $\mathcal{A} \models T$  (where  $\mathcal{A} \models T$  means  $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi$  for each  $\varphi \in T$ ).
- A **theory** is a set of sentences.

A **theory** is (effectively) axiomatizable provided there is recursive set  $A$  of sentences (and possibly rules) such that  $Cn(A) = T$ . A theory  $T$  is **finitely axiomatizable** provided there is a finite set  $A$  of sentences (and possibly rules) such that  $Cn(A) = T$ .

A theory  $T$  (in the language  $\mathcal{L}$ ) is **negation-complete** provided for every sentence of  $\varphi$  in  $\mathcal{L}$ , either  $T \vdash \varphi$  or  $T \vdash \neg\varphi$ .

A theory  $T$  is **decidable** provided the set  $Cn(T)$  is recursive.

Some useful observations and Theorems:

- If  $\mathcal{L}$  is a first-order language constructed from a signature of size  $\kappa$  (where  $\kappa$  is a cardinal), then  $|\mathcal{L}| = \max\{\aleph_0, \kappa\}$  ( $\aleph_0$  is the first countable cardinal). Thus, there are countably many formulas of  $\mathcal{L}_A$ .
- The set  $\mathcal{L}$  of well-formed formulas (wff) is recursive.
- If  $T$  is effectively axiomatizable, then  $Cn(T)$  is semidecidable.
- If  $T$  is effectively axiomatizable and negation-complete, then  $Cn(T)$  is decidable.
- *Model Construction Theorem.* Every consistent set of formulas has a model.
- *Compactness Theorem.* If every finite subset of  $T$  is satisfiable, then  $T$  is satisfiable.
- *Löwenheim-Skolem Theorem.* If  $T$  has a model, then  $T$  has a countable model. A model  $\mathcal{A}$  is countable provided the domain of  $\mathcal{A}$  is countable (i.e.,  $|\mathcal{A}|$  is countable). The upward Löwenheim-Skolem Theorem states that if  $T$  has a model, then it has a model of any infinite cardinality  $\kappa$ .

Two structures  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  are **elementarily equivalent**, denoted  $\mathcal{A} \equiv \mathcal{B}$ , provided for every sentence  $\varphi$ ,  $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi$  iff  $\mathcal{B} \models \varphi$  (i.e.,  $Th(\mathcal{A}) = Th(\mathcal{B})$ ).

**Definition 21 (Isomorphism)** Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  are two models. A function  $f : |\mathcal{A}| \rightarrow |\mathcal{B}|$  is an **isomorphism** provided

- $f$  is a bijection
- For all constants  $c \in C$ ,  $f(c^{\mathcal{A}}) = c^{\mathcal{B}}$
- $f(F^{\mathcal{A}}(a_1, \dots, a_n)) = F^{\mathcal{B}}(f(a_1), \dots, f(a_n))$
- For all  $(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in P^{\mathcal{A}}$  iff  $(f(a_1), \dots, f(a_n)) \in P^{\mathcal{B}}$

We write  $\mathcal{A} \cong \mathcal{B}$  when there is an isomorphism from  $\mathcal{A}$  to  $\mathcal{B}$ . ◀

*Isomorphism Theorem.* For any two first-order models if  $\mathcal{A} \cong \mathcal{B}$ , then  $\mathcal{A} \equiv \mathcal{B}$ .

There are examples of structures that are elementarily equivalent but not isomorphic (e.g.,  $(\mathbb{R}, <)$  and  $(\mathbb{Q}, <)$  cannot be distinguished by a first-order formula, but are not isomorphic since there is no bijection function from  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{Q}$ .)

Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a first-order structure. A set  $X \subseteq |\mathcal{A}|$  is **definable** (in the language  $\mathcal{L}$ ) provided there is a formula  $\varphi(x)$  with one free variable such that

$$X = \{a \mid \mathcal{A} \models \varphi(a)\}$$

This definition can be readily adapted to  $k$ -ary relations  $X \subseteq |\mathcal{A}|^k$ .

**Example.**  $\mathbb{N}$  is not definable in the structure  $(\mathbb{R}, <)$ . Suppose it is defined by  $\varphi(x)$  in the first-order language with equality and  $<$ . Consider  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined as  $h(r) = r^3$ . Then,  $h$  is an isomorphism between  $(\mathbb{R}, <)$  and itself (it is an *automorphism*). Thus, by the Isomorphism Theorem,  $(\mathbb{R}, <) \models \varphi(r)$  iff  $(\mathbb{R}, <) \models \varphi(h(r))$ . But, then  $\sqrt[3]{2} \notin \mathbb{N}$  implies  $(\mathbb{R}, <) \not\models \varphi(\sqrt[3]{2})$  iff  $(\mathbb{R}, <) \not\models \varphi(h(\sqrt[3]{2}))$  iff  $(\mathbb{R}, <) \not\models \varphi(2)$ , which is a contradiction since  $2 \in \mathbb{N}$ .